A recently published article on the Chaozhou dialect of Min spoken in Singapore states that the word sak⁷ bun² "soap" (sap⁷ bun² in other Min dialects of China and Taiwan) is a borrowing of Malay sabun (Li Yongming 1991:58). This claim may very well be true as far as it goes. But in directing our attention to only one small corner of the globe, it overlooks the interesting position occupied by the Min and Malay terms within the much larger and very colorful global mosaic to which Min and Malay have contributed only a few of the pieces. A close look at the lexeme "soap" in languages around the world reveals that many languages have inherited or borrowed the same word, viz., many of the modern forms meaning "soap" are ultimately derived from the same etymon, Proto-Indo-European "solb-on "soap". This remarkable transmission of "soap" into the world's languages has now reached global proportions, so that it seems to be one of the world's most widely borrowed words of material culture.

Cultural transmission is one of several mechanisms for introducing new words into a language. When a society adopts a new cultural object and an activity associated with it, the language of the borrowing society may follow one of two processes (or even both) to name the new object and activity, i.e., phonetic transliteration or semantic translation. In the first process the borrowing language uses its own phonetic resources to transliterate the name of the new object and activity as they are pronounced in the donor language. Japanese well illustrates this process. On the inside back cover of a Japanese-English dictionary for Japanese students of English (Nakajima 1985), there is a colorful page labelled "Games and Sports" with cartoon-like figures of boys and girls engaged in various activities depicting nine kinds of games and sports. Beneath the pictures the names of these games and sports have been transcribed in both Japanese (in kana and kanji) and English; the Japanese terms can be divided into the following two groups on the basis of their origin:

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1. **English loanwords:**

1. **English loanwords:**

   (1) saikurinɡu < "cycling"
   (2) suketodobōdo < "skateboard"
   (3) furizubī < "frisbee"
   (4) sāfuin < "surfing"

2. **Japanese words**

   (1) henka = "fight"
   (2) sakanatsuri = "fishing"
   (3) nawatobi = "jump rope"
   (4) onigokko = "tag"
   (5) umatobi = "leapfrog" \(^1\)

The group of English loanwords comprises the transliterated names of two objects and two activities associated with objects which have been adopted from English-speaking, American culture (aside from the question of who invented the bicycle, skateboard, frisbee, surfboard, etc., America is probably responsible for the commercial development of these various instruments of sport). The group of Japanese words includes two activities performed with instruments, i.e., fishing line and rope, which probably have a very long history and an independent origin within Japanese culture.

Standard Chinese, on the other hand, has generally preferred to use its own lexical resources to translate semantically the names of new inventions borrowed from the West; cf. the following two examples:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{huō "fire" + chē "cart"} & \rightarrow \text{huōchē "steam-powered locomotive, train"} \\
\text{chū "out" + zu "rent" + qīchē "car"} & \rightarrow \text{chūzūqīchē "car for renting out" = "taxi"}
\end{align*}
\]

In contrast, Hong Kong Cantonese, which has been in intimate contact with English over the past 150 years, more resembles Japanese by favoring the phonetic transliteration of English loanwords; cf. tīksī "taxi", feilám "film", tʃykùlik "chocolate".

Lexical borrowing via phonetic transliteration is a common, pervasive phenomenon among languages in contact. I have been intrigued by the possibility that a loanword could be passed along from one language to another so that eventually it has girdled the globe. On the basis of both cognate and loan relationships between an etymon and its modern reflexes, which etymon has the greatest number of modern reflexes in the world's languages? If we consider all modern reflexes related through cognition and borrowing as being the "same" word, the question can be rephrased as follows: What is the world's most widely-transmitted etymon? Which etymon displays the most widespread geographical distribution across the world's languages? Finally, can a loanword's transmission among borrowing

\(^{1}\) Literally "leap-horse". [Ed.]
languages exhibit global dimensions? I think the answer to the first three questions is Proto-Indo-European *soi̯b-ọn “soap”, and the answer to the last question is “yes” with cognate and loan reflexes of *soi̯b-ọn demonstrating how this is so.

This discussion begins with words for soap in the Min dialects of Chinese which are phonetically quite different from those in other neighboring Chinese dialects, and therefore set themselves apart as a unique group. Several publications on the Min dialects have attributed the origin of the Min forms to the borrowing of Malay sabun “soap”, e.g. Li Yongming 1991:58; Hanyu Fangyan Cihui (Lexicon of Chinese Dialects), Beijing University 1964:153; and Yuan 1983:299. There is no question that the Min and Malay forms are so phonetically similar that they must be related in some way. However, as will be described below, the etymological story of soap has attained global dimensions; there are many more links in the linguistic chain besides this one between Min and Malay.2

The Appendix (Global Distribution of Modern Reflexes for SOAP) indicates that the phonetic shape sabun which is phonetically similar to forms in the Min dialects appears in a number of genetically related and unrelated languages that encompass the globe. The modern forms for soap listed in the Appendix can be classified under four main phonetic shapes, viz., sabun1, sabun, sabu, sop (and their variants). One etymology underlies these modern reflexes in the languages of the Indo-European, Uralic, Semitic, Niger-Congo, Dravidian, Altaic, Sino-Tibetan, Austroasiatic, Austronesian, Kadaï, Amerind, and Indo-Pacific families. According to Buck (1949:453), the etymology of “soap” is Germanic *sai̯p(1)ōn: he claims the ancient Greeks and Romans did not possess soap but borrowed it and its name from Germanic tribes. Watkins (1985:56) defines the Germanic root as “dripping thing, resin” and states that it referred to “a reddish hair dye used by Germanic warriors to give [themselves] a frightening appearance.” From this Germanic root Watkins has reconstructed Proto-Indo-European *soi̯b-ọn.

Similar forms for “soap” have passed into a number of languages distributed across Europe, Africa, the Middle East, South, East, and Southeast Asia, the Pacific including Australia and Polynesia, and North America. The precise details associated with the adoption of the word for soap by so many languages must be quite complex; but it is reasonable to believe that the mode of earliest lexical transmission was via trade contacts

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2 In addition to “soap”, the lexemes “chocolate” and “coffee” may also belong to the pantheon of loanwords which have achieved the status of global distribution.
among Europeans, Arabs, Indians, and Asians. Some of the forms from languages distributed across Asia may be related to the arrival into this area of early European sailor-explorers, probably Portuguese, who carried soap with them and introduced it to the peoples with whom they came in contact. Portugal’s colonial presence in Asia began in the early 16th century, with the establishment of Goa on the west coast of India in 1510 and Macao on the southeast coast of China in 1557. Portugal’s first diplomat to Siam arrived in 1511, and a contingent of 120 Portuguese mercenarites were employed as bodyguards and military advisers by King Chaliracha of Ayudhya (ruled 1534-1447) (Wyatt 1984:88-9).

In attempting to identify the donor languages from which the loanwords were borrowed, we need to keep in mind the varying phonetic shapes of words in the possible donor and borrowing languages. Our assumption is that the phonetic shape of the loanword will be as similar as possible to that of its source. On the basis of their phonetic shapes, loanwords for “soap” in Asian languages can be divided into two types, sabu and sabun, one with an open second syllable and one with a second syllable closed by a dental nasal consonant. We can see that among the modern European languages, Portuguese sabão with its nasalized second syllable is phonetically closest to sabu(n). The Portuguese etymology has already been adduced for Siamese sabû: (Haas 1964:521), for Akha saˇbya, and Mpi sa^bu, two Loloish languages spoken in Thailand (Bradley 1979:332-3), and for Lahu ša-pê (Matisoff 1988:1168). We can also compare Cambodian sa:bû:, Lao sa3 bu˚, and Dai-Dehong sa:u2 pêu6.

The words for “soap” in Arabic, Malay, and Min terminate in a dental nasal stop consonant. Malay sabun may have been borrowed from Arabic or some Indo-Iranian language: cf. Arabic sabuun, Nepali sabun, Hindi/Urdu sābun, Persian sābun. Arabic in turn could have borrowed its term from Greek or a language belonging to the Romance or Indo-Iranian branches. Among the Altaic languages, we find Turkish sabun, Uighur sapun, Kazakh saben, Tartar saben, Kirghiz samen (with nasalization of the bilabial stop). Although Japan’s first European contacts in the Japanese islands began with Portuguese sailors who arrived in Japan in 1543 (and were followed soon after by St. Francis Xavier who landed in Kyushu in 1549 to embark upon his mission of Christianizing the local population), the phonetic shape of Japanese sabon is closer to the Malay, Arabic, and Turkish forms, which suggests one of these languages as its source.

3 For the moment, until I have learned more about Portuguese historical phonology and the historical development of nasalized vowels from earlier final nasal consonants in Proto-Romance, I am assuming that the pronunciation of the lexeme for “soap” in 16th century Portuguese was fairly similar to the modern pronunciation.
Japanese merchant-sailors already trading in Southeast Asia prior to the arrival of the Portuguese could have encountered soap and its name during their contacts with speakers of Malay and Arabic.

The Min group of Chinese dialects are spoken mainly in the southeast coastal provinces of Fujian and Taiwan. The Appendix indicates that sā² bun² is attested in at least five Min dialects (Lin and Chen 1985:141, Zhang 1983:80). Min is the only Chinese dialect group possessing forms for soap phonetically similar to words in Indo-European and Indo-Iranian languages as well as Arabic and Malay. As may have happened in the case of Japanese, I suspect that borrowing by Min speakers may also have occurred in coastal or insular Southeast Asia through their contacts with traders speaking Arabic, Malay, or some Indo-Iranian language. Similar forms are widely distributed through the area: cf. Vietnamese-Hanoi sãfãwŋ, Vietnamese-Nha Trang sãbông, Northern Roglai sâbông, Indonesian sabun, Paiwan sabun, Tagalog sabón. Min apparently had already acquired its term for soap before the Portuguese arrived in southeast China, otherwise the phonetic shape would be more like the Thai and Cambodian forms. Whatever the identity of the original donor language, the Min forms derive ultimately and indirectly from PIE *s₁o₁b-ön.

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4 The Yue dialect group is the other major Chinese dialect family of southeast coastal China. Yue dialects have had a long history of contact with the Portuguese language through the enclave of Macao which Portugal established on the coast of Guangdong in 1557. If any Chinese dialect were to have fulfilled its opportunity to borrow directly from Portuguese its word for "soap", one could reasonably expect that Yue would have done so. As it turns out, however, standard Yue kaan³ “soap” bears no relationship to the Portuguese term, and its origin must be quite different from that of the term in Arabic, Malay, Thai, and Min. In the list of lexical terms from standard Yue-Guangzhou (or Cantonese) given below, the Chinese character 觀 read with the pronunciation kaan³ was specially devised to transcribe the Yue morphosyllable whose origin is unknown:

Yue Guangzhou 番観 faan¹ kaan³ "[foreign] soap"  
(Rao et al. 1981:53)

Yue Guangzhou 視片 kaan³ phin³ "soap flakes"

Yue Guangzhou 視粉 kaan³ fan³ "soap powder"  
(Rao et al. 1981:64)

Hu's very brief sketch of the Portuguese influence on the Cantonese dialect spoken in Macao provides no information about what lexical term is used for "soap" among Cantonese speakers there (Hu 1991:241-2).
APPENDIX

Global distribution of reflexes for SOAP

PROTO-INDO-EUROPEAN

*soiβ-on

Romance:
Latin (Late)  sāpō, sāpōnis
French  savon
Italian  sapone
Portuguese  sabão
Rumanian  săpun
Spanish  jabón

Proto-Germanic
Old English  *saip(i)ōn- ‘dripping thing; resin’
Danish  sæbe
Dutch  zeep
German  seife
Norwegian  sāpe
Swedish  såpa
Yiddish  zeyf

Balto-Slavic:
Latvian  ziepes
Serbo-Croatian  sapun

Indo-Iranian:
Baluchi  şabun
Bengali  ḫaban
Hindi/Urdu  saabun
Lari  saby
Nepali  sābun
Persian  sābun
Sinhalese  sábán
Tajik-Wahan  sabūn
Tajik-Sariqul  sufūn

Other:
Armenian  sabon
Albanian  sapun
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language</th>
<th>Translation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Breton</td>
<td>soavon</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Greek-Demotic</td>
<td>sapuni</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Greek-Katharevusa</td>
<td>sapon</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Welsh</td>
<td>sebon</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>URALIC</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finnish</td>
<td>saippua, saippio</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hungarian</td>
<td>szappan, sâppân</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>AFRO-ASIATIC</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cushitic:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Omoro</td>
<td>sa:muna</td>
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<tr>
<td>Semitic:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arabic</td>
<td>spabuun</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beni Amer (Tigré)</td>
<td>sa:bu:n</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hebrew</td>
<td>sabon</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>DRAVIDIAN</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tamil</td>
<td>sōp</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>NIGER-CONGO</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abua</td>
<td>sábà</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mbum (Mbang Mboum)</td>
<td>sóbulú</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sambaa</td>
<td>sabuni</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sukuma</td>
<td>sabuni</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Swahili</td>
<td>sabuni</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tumbuka</td>
<td>sopo</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>ALTAIC</strong></td>
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<td>saben</td>
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<tr>
<td>Kirghiz</td>
<td>samen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tartar</td>
<td>saben</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Turkish</td>
<td>sabun</td>
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<tr>
<td>Uighur</td>
<td>sopun</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>JAPANESE</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>sabon</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TAI</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dai-Dehong</td>
<td>sa:u^2 peu^6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lao</td>
<td>sa^3 bu^2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Siamese</td>
<td>sa buu</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
AUSTROASIATIC

Deang
Jeh
Khmer (Cambodian)
Jing (Vietnamese of China)
Vietnamese-Hanoi
Vietnamese-Thu Trang

s'pia lōh
sim bông
sa:bù:
sa^2 fon^2
sà [xà-phông]
sà bông

AUSTRONESIAN

Amif
Balinese
Cebuano-Visayan
Fijian
Hawaiian
Indonesian
Isneg
Malay
Manobo
Paiwan
Ponapean
Roglai (Northern)
Tagalog
Yapese

sjafun
sabun
sabón
sovu
sopa
sabun
sabón
sabun
sabun, savun
sabun
sop

PIDGIN

New Guinea Pidgin

sop

AUSTRALIAN

Kalkatungu (Kalkadoon)

θupu

AMERIND

Papago-Pima

shawoni

SINO-TIBETAN

Sinitic

Min-Quanzhou
Min-Singapore
Min-Taipé
Min-Xiamen
Min-Yongchun
Min-Zhangzhou

sap^7 bun^2
sak^7 bun^2
sap^7 bun^2
sap^7 bun^2
sap^7 bun^2
sap^7 bun^2
Tibeto-Burman:
(Himalayish)
Gurung
Jirel
Kaike
Khaling
Kham
Magar
Newari
Sunwar
Tamang
Thakali
Tibetan-Lhasa
sä:bä:nä:q
sä:bunq
säbun
säbun
säban
säbun
säbwa, säbval-
sä:bin
'sä:pun
säpun
sa₂ pun²

(Lolo-Burmese)
Achang-Longchuan
Achang-Luiz/Lianghe
Akha
Biyue-Layuan
Burmese-Modern
Hani-Gelanghe
Haoni-Shuigul
Hpun
Lahu (Black)
Lahu (Yellow)
Nusu-Northern
Mpi
Naxi
Yi-Yunnan
tshau² piau²
tshau¹ pja¹
sa⁻ bja⁻
tsha³ pja²
hße²pya
tsha¹ bjo³
tsho³ pio²
shá(?) pyá
šá-pe
sa¹ pe⁵
tsho⁴ pio²
sa² pu²
tsho² pia²
tshao⁴ piao²

(Other)
Bai-Jianchuan
Bai-Dali
Jingpo
Karen
tshao³ piao²
tsho³ pio¹
sa³ pja³
tsho¹ pia³
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